



The selective deposition of MoS₂ nanosheets onto (101) facets of TiO₂ nanosheets with exposed (001) facets and their enhanced photocatalytic H₂ production

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ABSTRACT

One of the challenging issues in photocatalytic hydrogen (H₂) production is to efficiently separate the photo-generated electron-hole pairs and require the enrichment of photogenerated electrons on the photocatalyst's surface. Herein, a novel 2D-2D nanojunction of MoS₂ nanosheets (NSs) selectively deposited on the (101) facets of TiO₂ NSs with mainly exposed high-active (001) facets is prepared via a hydrothermal/annealing treatment combined with an photoreduction method using carbon fiber (CF) as templates. The obtained MoS₂@TiO₂ composite (selective deposition) photocatalyst exhibits a greatly enhanced photocatalytic H₂ production activity at the optimal weight percentage of MoS₂ (15 wt%), exceeding that of pure TiO₂ NSs and MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (random deposition) by 32 and 3 times, respectively. The superior photoactivity of MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition) is attributed to the synergistic promoting effects of the following factors: (i) the mainly exposed (001) facets of TiO₂ NSs with higher surface energy in MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition) facilitate the activation of water molecules and the photocatalytic reduction; (ii) the coexposed (101) and (001) facets can form a surface heterojunction within single TiO₂ NS, which is beneficial for the transfer and separation of charge carriers; (iii) the MoS₂ NSs are selectively deposited on the electrons-rich (101) facets of TiO₂ NSs, which can effectively reduce the charge carriers recombination rate by capturing photoelectrons. This study presents an inexpensive photocatalyst for energy conversion to achieve highly efficient H₂ evolution without noble metals.

1. Introduction

Solar energy has the advantages of being clean, abundant and renewable. Therefore, solar energy to hydrogen (H₂) energy conversion using photocatalytic water splitting is one of the promising methods to tackle serious energy and environmental problems [1]. Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) is one of the most important semiconductor-based photocatalysts and have been widely studied for photocatalytic H₂ production [2,3]. When TiO₂ is excited, both electron and hole are produced, and photocatalytic reactions happen when photogenerated electrons and holes migrate to its surface and react with substances absorbed on/near its surface [3]. However, the further application of TiO₂ is restricted due to the rapid recombination of photogenerated electron-hole pairs, thus numerous methods have been explored to solve this problem including doping and integrating narrow band gap semiconductors [4]. Since the pioneering report by Yang et al. in 2008 found that the 47% exposed (001) facets of anatase TiO₂ with high

surface energies showed the highest photocatalytic activity [5], morphology engineering that can attain selectively exposed high-active crystal facets of TiO₂ is a promising approach to enhance the photocatalytic activity [6]. So far, TiO₂ with different exposed facets such as (001), (100) and (101) have been successfully obtained [7]. Theoretical calculations have demonstrated the order of the average surface energies of the main exposed crystal facets of the anatase TiO₂ crystals following: 0.90 J/m² for (001) > 0.53 J/m² for (100) > 0.44 J/m² for (101) [8]. Besides, anatase TiO₂ with exposed different crystal facets have also been widely developed to promote the transition of photogenerated charge carriers, because the (101) and (001) facets of anatase TiO₂ exhibit different band structures and band edge positions based on the density functional theory (DFT) calculation [9]. Thus, the exposed (101) and (001) facets can form a surface heterojunction, which is beneficial for the transfer of photogenerated electrons and holes to (101) and (001) facets, respectively, resulting in the enhancement of photocatalytic activity [10]. Moreover, co-catalysts, such as noble

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metals (Au, Ag, Pt), deposited on the surface of TiO₂, can serve as trapping centers for photogenerated electrons and subsequently as active centers for photocatalytic H₂ production [11,12]. However, the use of noble metals for photocatalytic H₂ production from water may be difficult in practical applications due to their high-cost and scarcity [13]. Therefore, the quest for alternative low-cost cocatalysts to replace the noble metals materials is of utmost importance [14].

Molybdenum disulfide (MoS₂) is a typical two-dimensional (2D) layered transition metal sulfide with a structure composed of three stacked atom layers (S–Mo–S) [15]. The weak van der Waals bonding between these 2D layers often gives rise to single- or few-layer nanosheet (NS) architectures [16]. MoS₂ as a promising cost-effective substitute for noble metal cocatalysts shows superior photocatalytic H₂ evolution performance, owing that the unsaturated S atoms on the exposed edges of MoS₂ can act as active sites and have a strong affinity to H⁺ in solution [17]. For instance, Lin et al. reported that integration of a certain quantity of MoS₂ NSs with CdS nanowires can effectively enhance the photocatalytic H₂ production [18]. In addition, as a 2D support, MoS₂ NSs can provide a platform for attaching other semiconductors to form 3D nanostructures, which favors photocatalytic H₂ evolution because they produce more reaction active sites than 1D and 2D nanostructured materials [19]. Therefore, 2D MoS₂ NSs can be combined with other semiconductors to form 3D nanostructures.

Both theoretical and experimental studies had demonstrated that (001) crystal facets are holes-rich and (101) crystal facets are electrons-rich in anatase TiO₂ [20]. Thus, the high-energy (001) facets prefer to provide oxidation sites, while the low-energy (101) facets prefer to provide reduction sites [21]. Traditionally, cocatalysts are loaded on semiconductors by a chemical precipitation or adsorption method, which, in most cases, results in a random distribution of the cocatalysts on the surface of the photocatalysts [22]. In this case, cocatalysts are possibly deposited on the wrong sites (e.g., the photocatalytic H₂ evolution cocatalyst, such as Pt, is deposited on the holes-rich (001) facets in anatase TiO₂), which leads to the increase of the recombination of charge carriers [23]. Thus, it would be desirable to selectively deposit MoS₂ NSs onto electrons-rich (101) facets of TiO₂ NSs, which could combine the advantages from both the crystal facet effect and cocatalyst modification to initiate the oriented migration of photogenerated electrons and further enrich their presence onto the surface of TiO₂ for the enhanced photocatalytic H₂ production activity. To the best of our knowledge, the selective deposition of MoS₂ NSs on well-defined TiO₂ nanocrystals and investigation of their shape-dependent photocatalytic performance in H₂ production are not yet reported in the open publications.

Herein, we for the first time fabricate novel and unique 2D MoS₂ NSs selectively deposited on the (101) facets of 2D TiO₂ NSs with mainly exposed high-active (001) facets using carbon fibers (CFs) as templates, via a hydrothermal/annealing treatment method and subsequent photoreduction method. The results demonstrate that this MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition) exhibit higher activity in photocatalytic H₂ production than that of pure TiO₂ NSs and MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (random deposition) under solar light irradiation. In this case, the mainly high-active exposed (001) facets facilitate the activation of water molecules and the photocatalytic reduction. Besides, the photogenerated electrons and holes can be respectively transferred onto (101) and (001) facets due to the presence of surface heterojunction. Furthermore, the selective deposited of MoS₂ NSs can capture photogenerated electrons of (101) facets and act as reduction active sites, leading to high photocatalytic H₂ production activity. This work may provide a particular viewpoint for designing new photocatalyst systems for H₂ production.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Materials

The chemicals used in this work were of analytical reagent grade. Butyl titanate (Ti(OBu)₄), carbon fibers (CFs), hydrochloric acid (HCl), hydrofluoric acid (HF, 40%), ammonium molybdate ((NH₄)₂MoS₄), molybdenum dioxide (MoO₂), and sulfur powder were purchased from Sinopharm.

2.2. Synthesis of TiO₂ nanosheets (NSs)

In a typical synthesis process, 1.0 mL Ti(OBu)₄ and 0.3 g CFs were slowly dropped into HCl (18 mL, 5 M) solution. After the solution had been stirred for 30 min, 0.35 mL HF was added to the mixed solution. After another 5 min stirring, the solutions were transferred into Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclaves with a total volume of 25 mL. The hydrothermal synthesis was conducted at 180 °C for 4 h in an electric oven. Then, the obtained CF@TiO₂ composites were ultrasonically cleaned for 3 min in water. The TiO₂ NSs were obtained by annealing the as-prepared CF@TiO₂ composites at 800 °C for 2 h to remove the CF templates.

2.3. Synthesis of MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition and random deposition)

The formation process of MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition) was described as follows. Typically, 16.3 mg (NH₄)₂MoS₄ was respectively dissolved in 20 mL deionized water to form a transparent solution. Then 90 mg TiO₂ NSs were added into the above solution and stirred to form the suspension. The suspension was bubbled with N₂ for 30 min to remove oxygen completely and then irradiated with a 300 W mercury lamp for 60 min. The MoS₄²⁻ was reduced into the loaded MoS₂ by the photoexcited electrons of TiO₂. The MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition, 10 wt% MoS₂) were harvested after centrifugation and dried at 50 °C for 12 h. Similarity, by changing the mass of (NH₄)₂MoS₄ (25.8 mg, 62.7 mg, and 146.3 mg), MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition) with other MoS₂ loading amounts (15 wt%, 30 wt%, 50 wt%) were obtained, respectively.

For the preparation of MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (random deposition) with 15 wt% MoS₂ loading amounts, certain weights of MoO₂ and TiO₂ NSs were dispersed into DI water and the solution was stirred at 60 °C for 12 h. After water evaporation, MoO₂ was deposited on the surface of whole TiO₂ NSs. Finally, MoO₂ was completely changed into MoS₂ in a quartz-tube furnace at 500 °C using sulfur powder as sulfur sources.

2.4. Characterization

X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded with a Bruke D8 Advance powder X-ray diffractometer with Cu K α ($\lambda = 0.15406$ nm). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was performed with a FEI NanoSEM 450 instrument with an energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS). High resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) images were carried out with a JOEL JEM 2100F microscope. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was performed using an ESCALAB 250. The UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) were tested with a UV-vis spectrophotometer (UV-3101, Shimadzu). The specific surface area was calculated using the BET method and examined on a Micromeritics ASAP2020 instrument. The photoluminescence (PL) spectra were acquired at room temperature with a FLS920 fluorescence spectrometer under the ultraviolet excitation of 325 nm.

2.5. Photocatalytic and photoelectrochemical activity test

Photocatalytic H₂ evolution experiments were mainly carried out in a Pyrex glass cell with a top window connected to a gas-closed system.

The experiments were performed in aqueous acetone which dissolved sacrificial reagent (TEOA), and suspended with 20 mg of catalysts powder following ultrasonic dispersion for 20 min. The reaction temperature of reactant solution was maintained at 25 °C. The reactant solution was irradiated with a 300 W Xe arc lamp with an AM-1.5 filter after the reaction solution was evacuated several times to remove air completely. The focused intensity on the flask was ca. 180 mW/cm². The generated hydrogen analyzed using gas chromatography (Beijing China Education Au-light Co., Ltd, 7920, nitrogen as a carrier gas) equipped with thermal conductivity detector (TCD). The apparent quantum efficiency (AQE) was measured under similar photocatalytic reaction condition except that four 365 nm-LEDs (3 W, Shenzhen LAMPLIC Science Co. Ltd., China) were used as light sources instead of the Xe arc lamp. The focused intensity for each 365 nm-LED was ca. 6.0 mW/cm². The apparent quantum efficiency (QE) was measured and calculated according to Eq. (1):

$$\text{AQE} = \frac{\text{number of reacted electrons}}{\text{number of incident photons}} \times 100$$

$$= \frac{\text{number of evolved H}_2 \text{ molecules} \times 2}{\text{number of incident photons}} \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

Transient photocurrent responses (PEC) and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) curves were measured under a 300 W Xe arc lamp with an AM-1.5 filter with light on-off switches of 50 s in a three-electrode electrochemical cell in the 0.5 M Na₂SO₄ electrolyte, in which Pt foil and Hg/Hg₂Cl₂/KCl (saturated) electrode were used as the counter and reference electrodes, respectively. 10 mg as-synthesized samples were mixed with 1 mL ethanol. After sonicated for 15 min, the mixture was dropped onto fluoride-tin oxide (FTO) conductor glass and dried at 60 °C for 2 h to form a working electrode.

3. Results and discussion

Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) is a typical semiconductor belonging to the anatase phase and has shown photocatalytic activity in H₂ production [24]. Morphology engineering that can attain selectively exposed high-active crystal facets is a promising approach to enhance the activity of photocatalysts [25]. Hence, the TiO₂ NS is chosen as an ideal model to achieve charge carriers separation and selective loading of cocatalysts as catalytic sites for photocatalytic H₂ production. The formation procedure for the MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition) is shown in Scheme 1. First, the TiO₂ NSs (blue) with two different types of exposed facets, electrons-rich (101) crystal facets and holes-rich (001) facets, are first grown on the surface of the CF (black) using Ti(OBu)₄ as the precursor in a HF aqueous solution according to a previously reported method [26]. Second, CF@TiO₂ annealing at 800 °C for 2 h is to remove the CF templates, TiO₂ NSs with a regular morphology and smooth surface with coexposed (001) and (110) facets are obtained. Subsequently, photoreduction treatment of (NH₄)₂MoS₄ in an aqueous solution of the as-prepared TiO₂ NSs lead to ultrathin MoS₂ NSs (grey) selectively grown on the electrons-rich (101) facets of the TiO₂ NSs.

XRD was used to investigate the phase structure and crystallization of the prepared samples. Fig. 1 shows the XRD patterns of MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition) with different MoS₂ loading amounts. As can be seen, no signals assignable to CFs are detectable. This

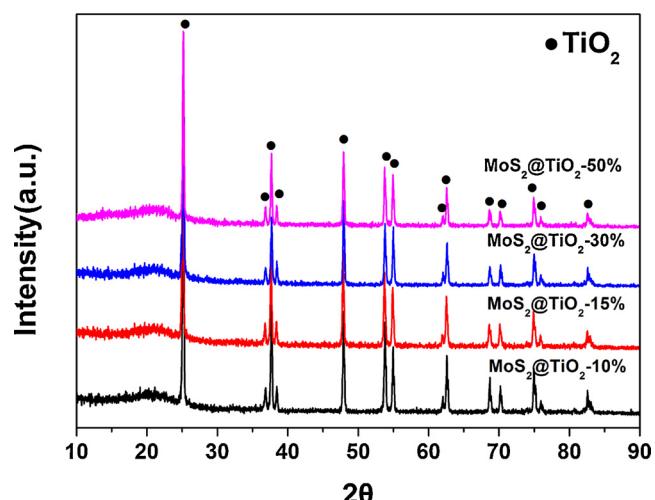
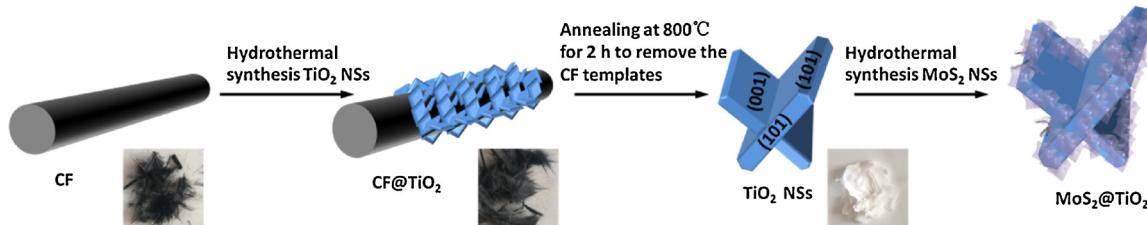


Fig. 1. XRD patterns of MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition) with different MoS₂ loading amounts (10 wt%, 15 wt%, 30 wt%, 50 wt%).

indicates that the CFs disappear by annealing the CF@TiO₂ composites. Additionally, the curves reveal that the diffraction peaks at about $2\theta = 25.28^\circ, 36.95^\circ, 37.80^\circ, 38.58^\circ, 48.05^\circ, 53.89^\circ, 55.06^\circ, 62.69^\circ, 68.76^\circ, 70.31^\circ$ and 82.66° correlate closely with the (101), (103), (004), (112), (200), (105), (211), (204), (116), (220) and (224) crystal planes of anatase TiO₂ (JCPDS card no. 21-1272) [3]. No signals assignable to MoS₂ are detectable. This can be explained by the fact that MoS₂ is ultra-thin and is highly dispersed on the TiO₂ NSs, as shown in the TEM images of Fig. 3.

Fig. 2a shows the SEM image of TiO₂ NSs, in which TiO₂ NS is a sheet-shaped structure with an average side length of ca. 3 μm and thickness of ca. 200 nm. According to the symmetries of TiO₂ NSs, two flat and square facets in the crystal structure of TiO₂ NSs can be ascribed to (001) facets and the eight isosceles trapezoidal facets are (101) facets of the TiO₂ crystal. A magnified FE-SEM image (Fig. 2b) exhibits these two facets clearly, besides, it can be seen that the interfacial angle between the (001) and (101) facets of anatase is 68° on average [27]. From their size and geometry, the percentages of exposed facets in the as-prepared TiO₂ nanocrystals were calculated on TiO₂ nanocrystals by the method developed by Zhu et al. [28]. The average percentage of the exposed (001) facets was 56.8% (The method of the calculation is shown in Fig. S1). Note that this exposed percentage of (001) facets is very close to that reported recently (58%) for the optimized formation of a surface heterojunction [29]. As shown in Fig. 2c, interestingly, the MoS₂ NSs with a very thin layer mainly appeared on the (101) facets of TiO₂ NSs, while almost no MoS₂ NSs were observed on the (001) facets. This phenomenon was also confirmed by a magnified FE-SEM image of TiO₂ NSs (Fig. 2d), which can keep the maximum exposure of (001) facets of TiO₂ NSs with higher surface energy. Therefore, it can be concluded that MoS₂ NSs are selectively deposited on the (101) facets of TiO₂ NSs [30]. Moreover, MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition) with other different MoS₂ loading amounts (10 wt %, 30 wt%, 50 wt%) are also obtained. The corresponding SEM images



Scheme 1. Schematic illustration of the formation of the MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition).

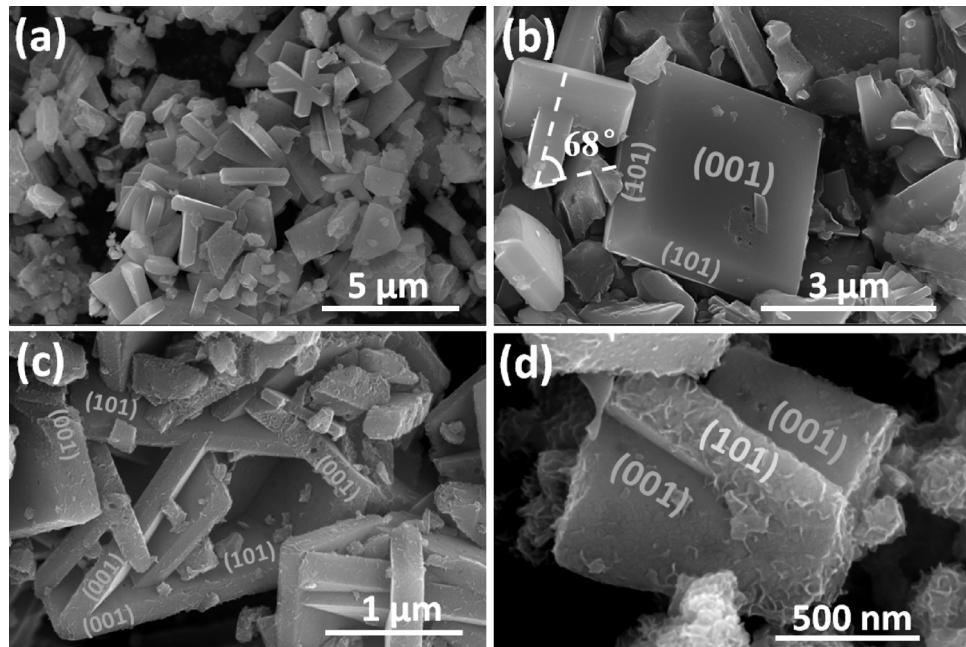


Fig. 2. SEM images of (a, b) TiO₂ NSs and (c, d) MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition, 15 wt% MoS₂).

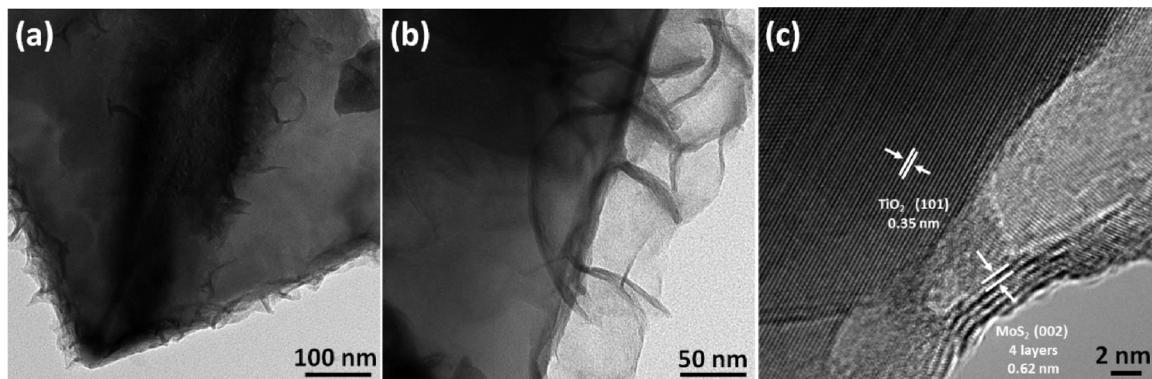


Fig. 3. TEM images of MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition, 15 wt% MoS₂).

are presented in Fig. S2. EDS (Fig. S3 and Table S1) shows that Mo, S, Ti, and O elements are found in the MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition), and no other impurities are observed in the spectra.

The morphologies of MoS₂@TiO₂ composites were further confirmed by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) observations (Fig. 3). As shown in the Fig. 3a and b, thin MoS₂ NSs are intimately deposited on the (101) facets of TiO₂ NSs with few layers. HR-TEM image of MoS₂@TiO₂ composite showed the intimate contact between MoS₂ and TiO₂ (Fig. 3c). The lattice spacing of ca. 0.62 nm can be assigned to the (002) plane of hexagonal MoS₂ (JCPDS, No.37-1492) [31], and the lattice spacing of ca. 0.35 nm can be indexed to the (101) plane of anatase TiO₂ (JCPDS, No. 21-1272) [32]. Based on the above analyses, it could be concluded that MoS₂ NSs are selectively deposited on the (101) facets of TiO₂ NSs. Moreover, the intimate contact between MoS₂ NSs and TiO₂ NSs in the 2D-2D MoS₂@TiO₂ composites could favor the transfer of photogenerated charge carriers, thus enhancing the charge separation and the photocatalytic activity [33].

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was used to investigate the chemical states of Ti, O, Mo and S in the MoS₂@TiO₂ composites. The XPS survey spectrum (Fig. S4) indicates that MoS₂@TiO₂ composites are consisted of Ti, O, Mo, S and C elements without other impurities. Among them, the C element peak is mainly attributed to exogenous carbon as a calibration reference. The binding energies of Ti 2p_{3/2} and

Ti 2p_{1/2} for MoS₂@TiO₂ composites are located at 459.3 and 465.3 eV (Fig. 4a), respectively, indicating the presence of Ti⁴⁺ [34]. The O 1s spectra of MoS₂@TiO₂ composites is shown in Fig. 4b, in which two peaks with binding energies of 530.8 and 531.9 eV are observed, which are attributed to the Ti–O bond and adsorbed water, respectively [35]. Fig. 4c and d show that the binding energies of Mo 3d_{3/2}, Mo 3d_{5/2}, S 2p_{1/2} and S 2p_{3/2} peaks are located at 232.5, 229.3, 163.9 and 162.3 eV [36], respectively, suggesting that Mo⁴⁺ and S²⁻ existed in the MoS₂@TiO₂ composites. The states of Ti, O, Mo and S are all in agreement with TiO₂ and MoS₂, according to the XPS spectra.

The solar light harvesting of MoS₂@TiO₂ composites was investigated through UV-vis absorption spectra, as shown in Fig. 5a. MoS₂ NSs exhibit a remarkable absorption in the visible region (400–800 nm). Compared to the pure TiO₂ NSs, the absorption spectra of the MoS₂@TiO₂ composites show an enhanced absorption in the visible light region ranging from 400 to 800 nm, and increases with the increasing MoS₂ content, which is in accordance with the above color change of the sample from white to black (Fig. S5). The band gap energy (E_g) of TiO₂ NSs, MoS₂ NSs and MoS₂@TiO₂ composites with different MoS₂ loading amounts (10 wt%, 15 wt%, 30 wt% and 50 wt% MoS₂) could be computed from the formula $(\alpha h\nu)^{1/2} \propto h\nu - E_g$, where α , h , ν , and E_g are absorption coefficient, Planck's constant, light frequency, and band gap energy, respectively (Fig. 5b). Thus, after

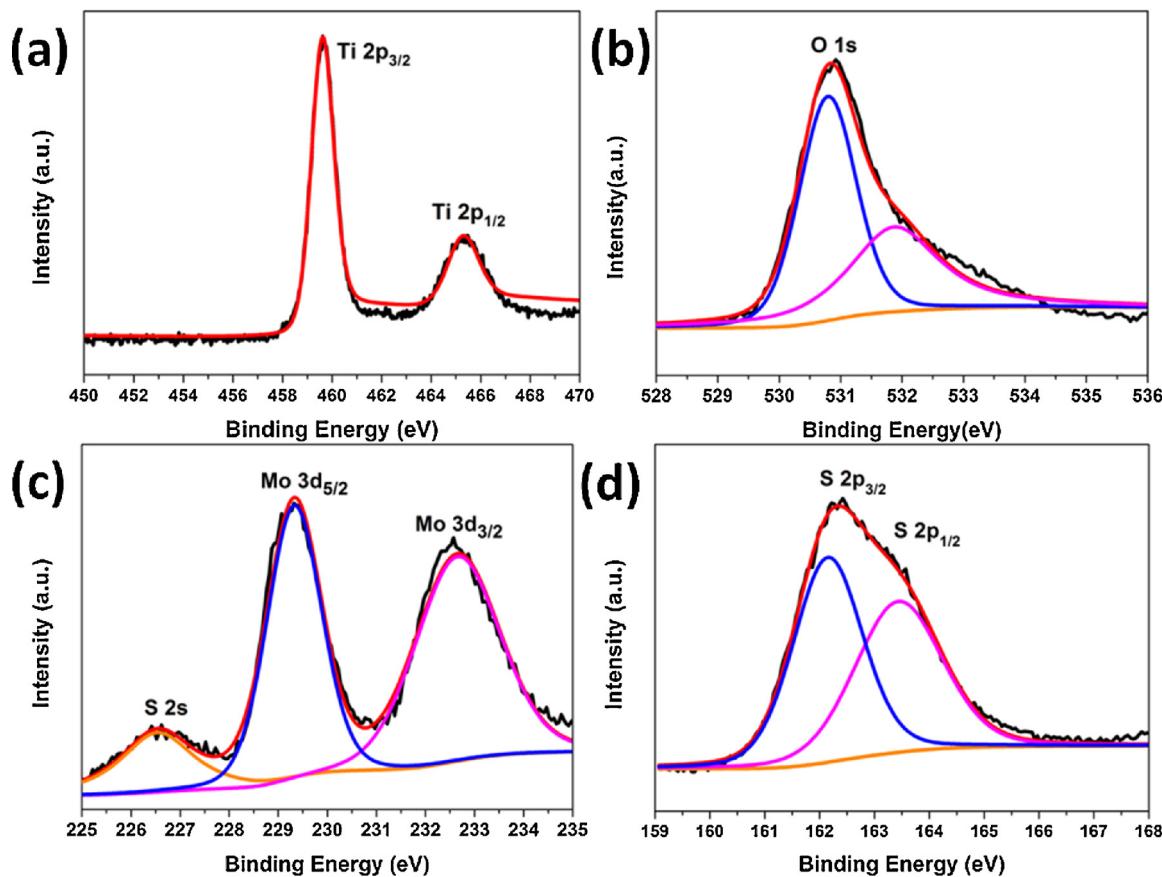


Fig. 4. XPS spectra of (a) Ti 2p, (b) O 1s, (c) Mo 3d and (d) S 2p in MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition, 15 wt% MoS₂).

calculating, the E_g of TiO₂ NSs, MoS₂ NSs and MoS₂@TiO₂ composites with different MoS₂ loading amounts (10 wt%, 15 wt%, 30 wt% and 50 wt% MoS₂) are found to be about 3.1 eV, 0.6 eV, 1.32 eV, 1.23 eV, 1.13 eV and 0.84 eV, separately. Besides, the absorption spectra of the MoS₂@TiO₂ composites show a red-shift of absorption edge with increasing MoS₂ contents (Fig. 5a), due to the narrow band gap of MoS₂ (0.6 eV, Fig. 5b). This result indicates that the addition of MoS₂ can enhance the optical absorption properties.

The photocatalytic activity for H₂ evolution was evaluated under simulated sunlight irradiation using acetone as a scavenger. Fig. 6 presents a comparison of the photocatalytic H₂ production activities of TiO₂ NSs, MoS₂ NSs and MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition,

10 wt%, 15 wt%, 30 wt% and 50 wt% MoS₂) in aqueous acetone solution with TEOA to quench the photogenerated holes. Control experiments (Fig. S6) indicate that no appreciable H₂ production is detected in the absence of either irradiation or photocatalyst, suggesting that H₂ is produced by a photocatalytic reaction of the photocatalyst. Pure MoS₂ NSs and TiO₂ NSs are photocatalytically inert toward H₂ production, with a reaction rate of lower than 0.06 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ (Fig. 6a). The low photocatalytic H₂ production of pure MoS₂ is probably due to the number of photogenerated electron and holes in the MoS₂ band structure not being sufficient to produce a detectable amount of H₂ [37]. Pure TiO₂ shows a very low photocatalytic activity because of the rapid recombination of electrons and holes [38]. Noticeably, as shown

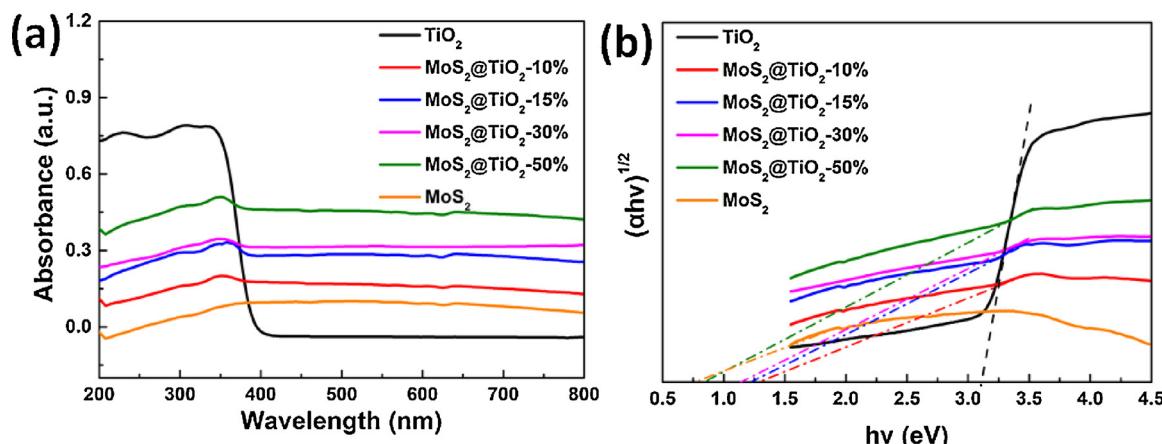


Fig. 5. (a) UV-vis absorption spectra and (b) band gap values of TiO₂ NSs, MoS₂ NSs and MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition) with different MoS₂ loading amounts (10 wt%, 15 wt%, 30 wt% and 50 wt% MoS₂).

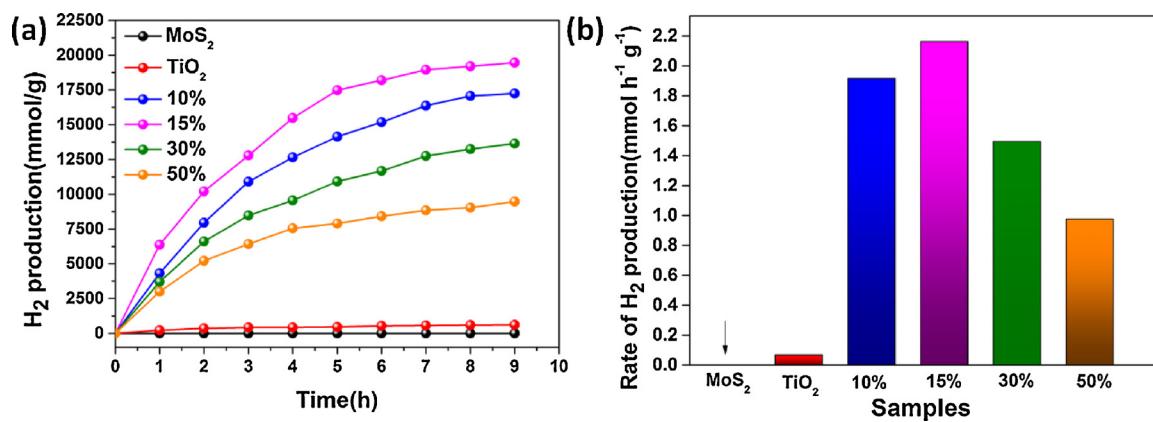


Fig. 6. (a) Photocatalytic H₂ production and (b) rate of photocatalytic H₂ production of different catalysts in aqueous acetone solution with TEOA within 9 h.

in Fig. 6a the photocatalytic activity is sharply enhanced with MoS₂ loading and achieves maximal values on the MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (15 wt% MoS₂), reaching 2.16 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ (32 times that of pure TiO₂). The superior photocatalytic H₂ production of the MoS₂@TiO₂ composites suggest that MoS₂ modification on TiO₂ is critical to the photocatalytic H₂ production. As an effective water reduction cocatalyst, MoS₂ has been widely used as cocatalyst for enhancing photocatalytic H₂ production [39]. The deposition of MoS₂ NSs acted as the electron sinks to facilitate the separation of photoelectrons from holes, thus leading to an enhanced H₂ production activity [40].

In addition, as shown in Fig. 6b, the photocatalytic activities of the samples increase non-linearly with increasing MoS₂ loading (from 10 to 15 wt% MoS₂) because of the relatively lower solar energy input via increasing catalyst amount. However, further increasing the content of MoS₂ (from 15 wt% to 50 wt% MoS₂) leads to a gradual decrease of the photocatalytic activity. Excess black MoS₂ NSs absorb photons in the photocatalytic system, probably decreasing the intensity of light through the deeper reaction solution and shielding the light from reaching the TiO₂ surface, which could be called a “shielding effect” [41]. This shielding effect may become more obvious and then gradually decrease the photocatalytic activity when further increasing the MoS₂ content, which is consistent with the change of the sample color (Fig. S5) and the UV-vis spectra (Fig. 5a). Stability and recyclability of the MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition) were estimated by repeating intermittent H₂ evolution under solar light (Fig. S7). 90% of incipient production can be kept for the MoS₂@TiO₂ composites even after 20 h. Besides, the rate of H₂ evolution of the MoS₂@TiO₂ composites within 20 h after 3 cycles keep seems to be linear (Fig. S8), which is better than that of in initial cycle (Fig. 6a). XRD pattern, SEM image and XPS spectra of MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition, 15 wt% MoS₂) after 3 cycles in Fig. S9 show no obvious difference between those of the fresh sample. It further demonstrates the stability of the MoS₂@TiO₂ composites. Moreover, it is obvious that MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (15 wt% MoS₂) possess a larger BET surface area (Table S2) than that of TiO₂ NSs, MoS₂ NSs and MoS₂@TiO₂ composites with other MoS₂ loading amounts (10 wt%, 30 wt% and 50 wt% MoS₂), which is beneficial for the adsorption and migration of reactant and product molecules.

In order to further investigate the influence of the distribution of MoS₂ cocatalysts on the photocatalytic H₂ production activity of the prepared composites, the MoS₂ is deposited selectively and randomly on the TiO₂ NSs for comparison (Fig. 7). For sample MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition), MoS₂ is selectively deposited on (101) facets of TiO₂ by photoreduction method. Similarly, for sample MoS₂/TiO₂ composites (random deposition), MoS₂ is randomly deposited on (101) and (001) facets of TiO₂ by sulfuration method. The selective and random deposition procedures of MoS₂ are illustrated in Figs. S10 and S11. During the selective photodeposition of MoS₂

cocatalyst (Fig. S10), due to the surface heterojunction between the two exposed facets, the photogenerated electrons and holes migrate to (101) and (001) facets, respectively. Consequently, Mo⁶⁺ in (NH₄)₂MoS₄ can be reduced effectively by the electrons on the (101) facets to form Mo⁴⁺, which then further form MoS₂. The MoS₂ NSs are finally deposited on the (101) facets of TiO₂. Hence, the surface MoS₂ cocatalyst can be selectively deposited on (101) facets as the reduction active site, and the photogenerated electrons from TiO₂ are most likely to migrate to these reduction active sites to participate in photocatalytic H₂ production. However, for MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (random deposition) (Fig. S11), we chose MoO₂ (Mo⁴⁺) as precursor because there is no reduction process. Certain weights of MoO₂ and TiO₂ are dispersed into DI water and the solution is stirred at 60 °C for 12 h. After water evaporation, MoO₂ is deposited on the surface of whole TiO₂ NSs. Finally, MoO₂ is completely changed into MoS₂ in a quartz-tube furnace using sulfur powder as sulfur sources. Thus, these MoS₂ NSs were randomly attached on (101) and (001) facets of TiO₂ NSs (Fig. S12). Therefore, it is not surprising that the photocatalytic activities of MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (random deposition) greatly decrease comparing with MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition) because MoS₂ NSs are selectively deposited on (101) facets and used as reduction cocatalysts (Fig. 7). The random deposition of catalysts can lead to the reduction cocatalyst (MoS₂) being located on the wrong sites (oxidation sites) so that the recombination of photogenerated charge carriers can take place once they are trapped by the cocatalysts. To determine the photogenerated charge separation efficiency on the two types of MoS₂@TiO₂ composites, apparent quantum efficiency (AQE) was measured under light irradiation 365 nm. The AQE of water reduction for the MoS₂@TiO₂ composite (selective deposition) was measured to be about 3 times that of MoS₂@TiO₂ composite (random deposition), from 2.42% to 6.87%, demonstrating that charge separation efficiency is greatly improved by depositing MoS₂ NSs on (101) facets of TiO₂ NSs.

In order to further evaluate the efficiency of charge carrier trapping, migration, transfer, and separation, the photocurrent responses and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy of the samples were tested. Figs. 8a and S13 shows the periodic on/off photocurrent response of all samples when irradiated under solar light. It can be seen that all the samples show an immediate rise in the photocurrent response when the light was on. Contrarily, the photocurrent rapidly decreases to zero when the light was turned off. The on-off cycles of photocurrent are reproducible, which indicates that the photogenerated electrons are transferred to the back contact across the samples to form photocurrent under light irradiation [7]. The pure TiO₂ and MoS₂ electrode generated a relatively low photocurrent density with a 0.12 μA/cm² and 0.1 μA/cm², respectively. The MoS₂@TiO₂ composite (selective deposition, 15 wt%) electrode shows the highest photocurrent density of 1.3 μA/cm², which is about 11 times higher than that of bare TiO₂ electrode, indicating a noticeable improvement of electron-hole

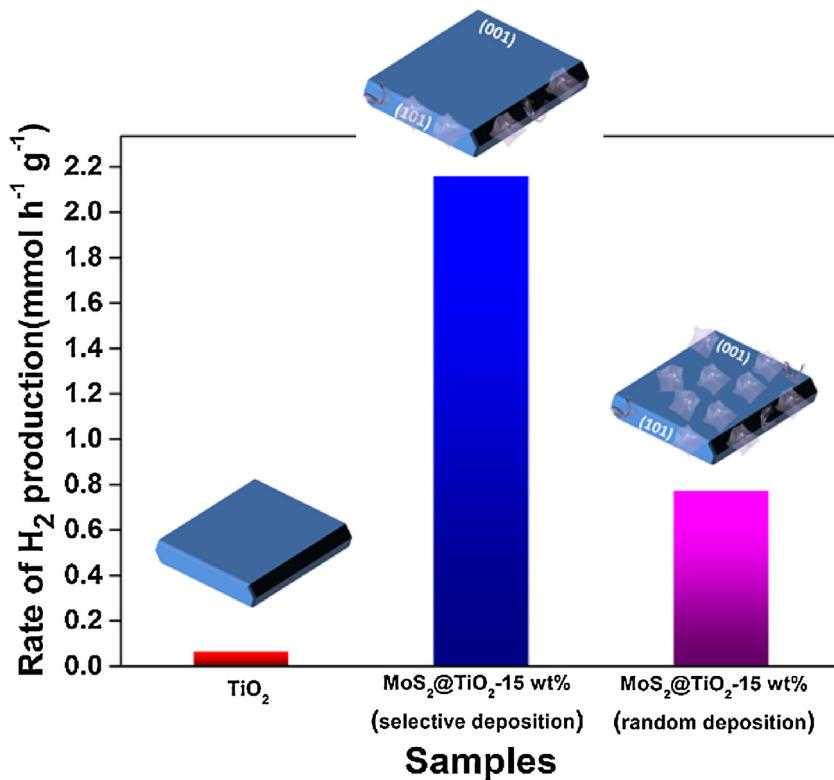


Fig. 7. (a) Rate of photocatalytic H_2 production of TiO_2 NSs, $\text{MoS}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ composite (selective deposition) and $\text{MoS}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ composite (random deposition).

separation efficiency by the introduction of MoS_2 cocatalysts [42]. The $\text{MoS}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ composite (50 wt%) electrode is only slight higher than bare TiO_2 electrode, due to modification of TiO_2 NSs with too much black MoS_2 NSs induced “shielding effect”. Meanwhile, the excessive MoS_2 NSs on TiO_2 can act as a kind of recombination center instead of providing an electron pathway [43]. In general, a smaller arc radius on an EIS Nyquist plot means a smaller charge-transfer resistance on the electrode surface and a higher separation efficiency of electron-hole pairs. As shown in Fig. 8b, the arc size for the samples under solar light irradiation are $\text{MoS}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ -15% < $\text{MoS}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ -10% < $\text{MoS}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ -30% < $\text{MoS}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ -50% < TiO_2 , suggesting that the $\text{MoS}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ composite (15 wt%) owns the most effective separation of photo-generated charges. The photoluminescence (PL) spectra (Fig. S14) can also confirm the $\text{MoS}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ composite (15 wt%) can effectively diminish the recombination of photogenerated carriers.

From what has been observed and discussed above, a proposed mechanism for the enhanced photocatalytic H_2 production activities of

$\text{MoS}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ composites is illustrated in Scheme 2. For sample $\text{MoS}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ composites (selective deposition), under light illumination, the photoexcited electrons and holes are generated in the conduction band (CB) and valence band (VB) of TiO_2 , respectively. Based on the DFT calculations, the (101) and (001) facets of anatase TiO_2 exhibit different band structures and band edge positions [44]. Thus, the coexposed (101) and (001) facets of anatase can form a surface heterojunction within single TiO_2 . Due to the presence of surface heterojunction, the photogenerated electrons and holes migrate to (101) and (001) facets, respectively [45,9]. On the (101) facets, the photoexcited electrons then transport to MoS_2 due that MoS_2 NSs contain several individual sandwiched S-Mo-S layers via weak van der Waals interactions, which lead to the abundant exposure of Mo-terminated edges with the metallic character and a high d-electron density [3]. During the H_2 production in solution, the excited electrons in TiO_2 transfer to Mo sites with d-electron density. Then MoS_2 NSs act as the reduction active sites, in which the electrons can reduce H_2O to produce H_2 [7].

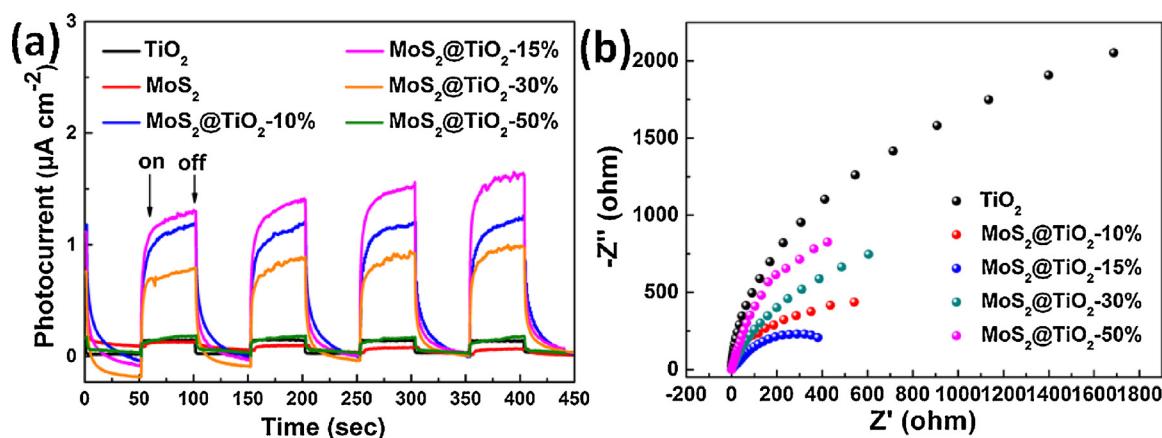
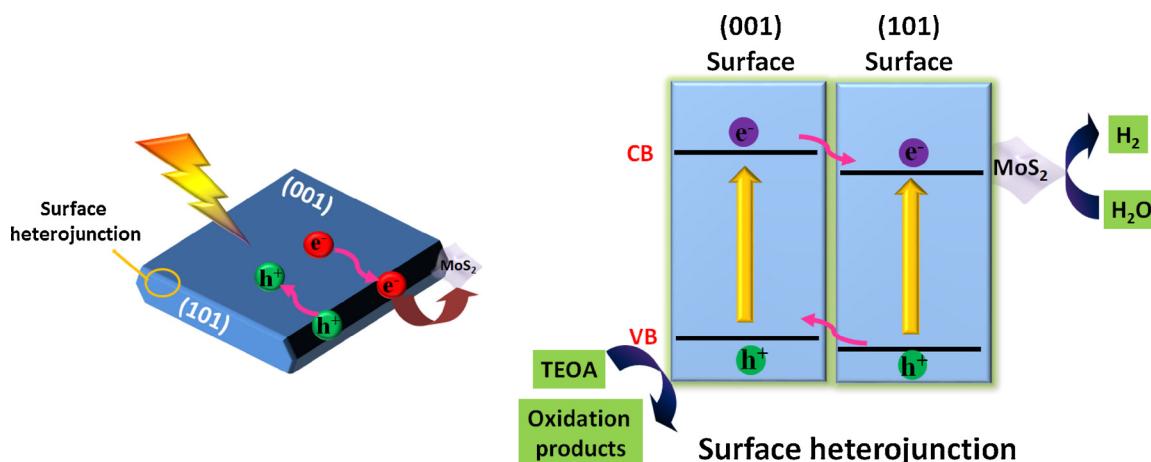


Fig. 8. (a) Transient photocurrent responses and (b) electrochemical impedance spectroscopy of the samples under solar light irradiation.



Scheme 2. Schematic illustration for the synergistic effect of the surface heterojunction between (101) and (001) facets and the selective deposition of MoS₂ on (101) facets of TiO₂. The former is beneficial for the spatial transfer and separation of photogenerated charged carriers and the latter beneficial for occurrence of reduction reactions.

The holes in (001) facets are consumed by the sacrificial reagents. This indicates that the notable synergistic effect was caused by the surface heterojunction and the cocatalysts.

However, for sample MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (random deposition), MoS₂ NSs were randomly loaded on both (101) and (001) facets. As a result, the MoS₂ NSs loaded on (001) facets will directly contact with holes on (001) facets, thus inhibiting the transfer of electrons from (001) to (101) facets, and becoming a recombination center of photo-generated electrons and holes. Therefore, it is easy to understand that the MoS₂@TiO₂ composite (random deposition) shows a lower H₂ production activity than MoS₂@TiO₂ composite (selective deposition). These results clearly show that not only the suitable contents of MoS₂ but also the loading locations of the cocatalysts are crucial for improving the photocatalytic H₂ production activity of TiO₂.

4. Conclusion

In summary, we have successfully developed an efficient MoS₂@TiO₂ composite photocatalyst with noble metal free MoS₂ NSs selectively deposited on the (101) facets of TiO₂ NS with mainly exposed high-active (001) facets by combining heterojunction nanostucture construction and morphology engineering method. The obtained MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition) exhibits high photocatalytic H₂ evolution activity with a rate as high as 2.16 mmol h⁻¹ g⁻¹, for the sample with 15 wt% MoS₂ loading, 32 and 3 times higher than pure TiO₂ NSs and MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (random deposition), respectively. For MoS₂@TiO₂ composites (selective deposition), the synergistic effect of surface heterojunction between (001) and (101) facets of TiO₂ NSs and the selective deposition of MoS₂ NSs on (101) facets largely suppress the recombination of charge carriers and provide more catalytic active sites for photocatalytic reactions and thus the photocatalytic activity is dramatically enhanced. The MoS₂@TiO₂ composite (selective deposition) photocatalyst also shows good stability under the reaction condition. The results show that not only the combination of MoS₂ cocatalysts but also the loading locations and distributions of the cocatalysts are very crucial for the enhancement of high photocatalytic H₂ production activity. Hopefully, the present results can provide useful information for designing optimal photocatalytic systems for H₂ production.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2018.09.051>.

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